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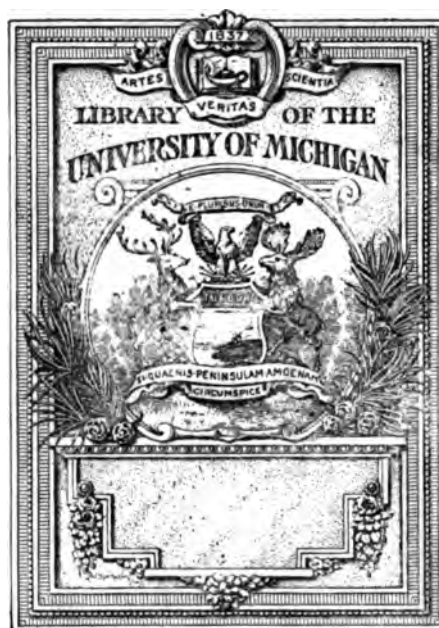
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ARMITSTEAD LECTURES, DUNDEE.
OPENING ADDRESS,
KINNAIRD HALL, NOVEMBER 2ND, 1906.

HOW THE UNITED STATES
FACED ITS
EDUCATIONAL PROBLEM

BY

WHITELAW REID.



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ARMITSTEAD LECTURES, DUNDEE.

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION
WASHINGTON, D. C.

June 5, 1907.

Dear Sir:

The Commissioner of Education directs me to send you herewith a copy of How the United States faced its educational problem, by Whitelaw Reid, from a number of copies kindly placed at his disposal by the American Ambassador at London.

Very truly yours,

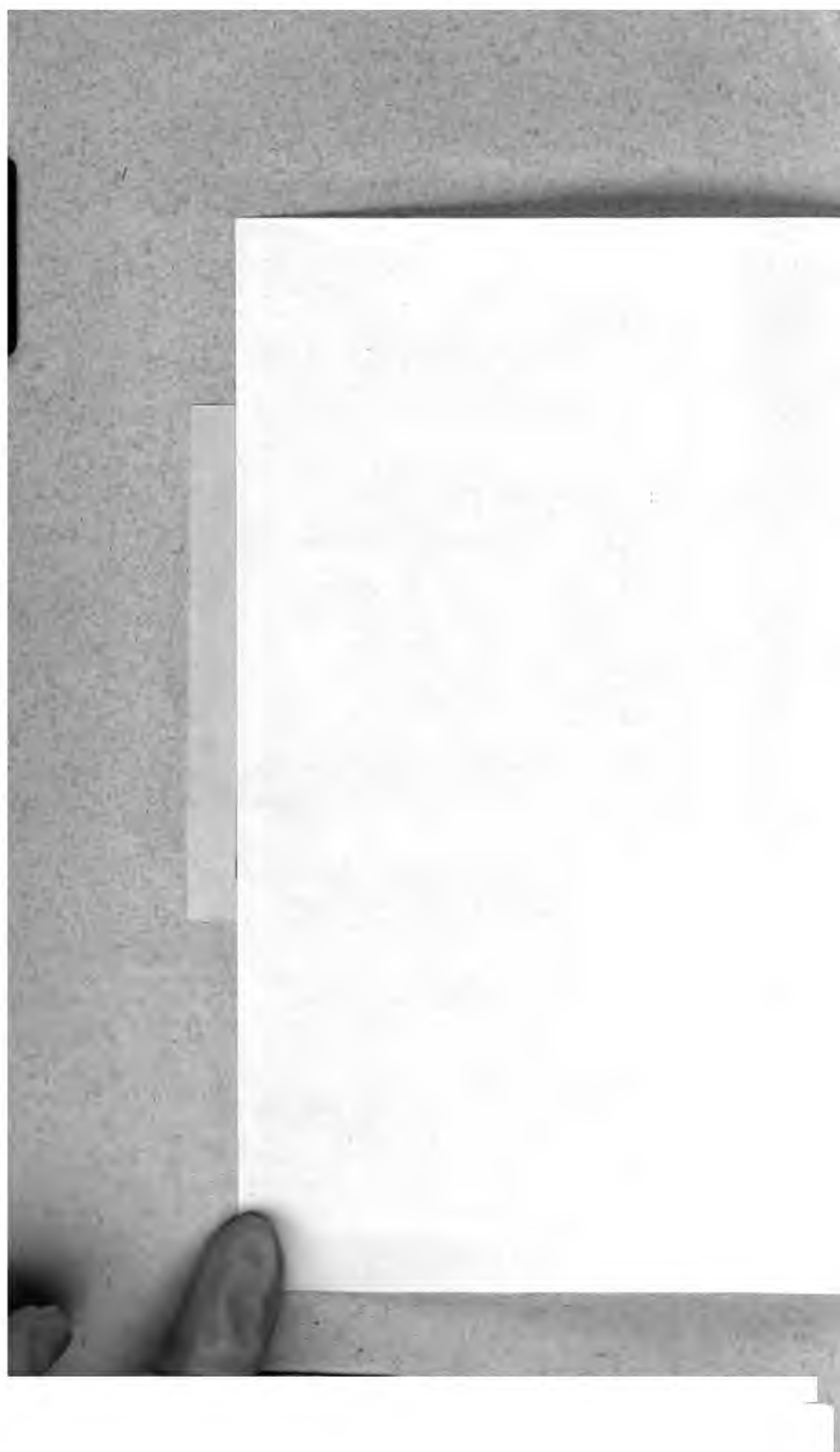
L. A. Kalbach

Executive Clerk.

James B. Angell, LL. D.,
President, University of Michigan,
Ann Arbor, Mich.

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ARMITSTEAD LECTURES, DUNDEE.
OPENING ADDRESS,
KINNAIRD HALL, NOVEMBER 2ND, 1906.

HOW THE UNITED STATES
FACED ITS
EDUCATIONAL PROBLEM

BY
WHITELAW REID.

HARRISON AND SONS, PRINTERS,
LONDON, 1906.

HOW THE UNITED STATES FACED ITS EDUCATIONAL PROBLEM.

Dundee confers a fresh honour upon me to-night* in this splendid audience and in the privilege of opening this course of lectures. The solid foundation on which Lord Armitstead has established the course enhances the honour. So do the educational efforts that preceded its establishment, and so does the renown of this great Scotch city for which it is conducted.

When this duty was proposed to me I was told that the thoughts of the community were turned towards a broadening of university work to meet the wants of the broader age in which we live; and that therefore this opening address might properly discuss the demands for a more practical training that form one phase of your ever-widening educational problem. But the whole question of education under this Government is at this moment in the political melting pot. It is, therefore, a question from which any discreet representative of another Government flees, as from the plague. I was next advised that something about educational affairs in my own country would be a topic of special local interest, and this perhaps one may venture upon without offence.

Yet even here it would be easy to be misunderstood. The conditions with us are not the same. In fact, several of them are so unlike British conditions as to make it probable that what seems to suit the one country might be found quite unsuitable for the other. Far be it from me therefore to dream of holding up our experience for imitation or even for instruction! Still, intelligent people, intent on any perplexing subject, are always interested and sometimes helped in noting how other people have had to deal with somewhat similar subjects. And so, without further preface or apology, I respond to the authoritative intimations I have received, by inviting your attention to the way in which the United States has faced its educational problem.

* The Freedom of the City had been conferred in the morning.

What the
American
Problem
was.

Let us begin by stating the elements of its problem :—

First, then, a new and vast country, developing at the outset with painful slowness, later with startling rapidity, under a self-governing people.

Next, important characteristics among this people derived from the land which first ruled them—a vehement attachment to the personal rights of Britons, and a belief, which never admits a question, a belief which I may fairly call Scottish, in the imperative duty of giving the best possible education to their children.

Next, a growing tendency towards universal suffrage, creating a political necessity for the nearest practicable approach to universal intelligence.

Next, a habit of thought, fervidly religious at the outset, but diverging into many forms of religion ; strenuous therefore at once in a demand for religious freedom and in hostility to an established church.

And finally, a continent to be conquered from its primitive wildness and savagery to the uses of civilized man, a task sometimes shortening the years parents could spare their children for education, and impressing on what education they did get a new and very practical bent, in order to promote these material conquests through scientific means.

How this
problem
might be
expected
to work out.

We hear occasionally about the Science of History—more, in fact, at times than some of us believe. But, given these elements of the problem, we may well imagine that the philosophic student might on such data almost construct the history of educational evolution in the United States from first principles and without reference to the records. Thus :—

It would be clear that at the outset every religious sect would start private schools, and would try to sweep into them not only the children of its own faith but all others it could lay its hand on.

It would be equally clear that wherever it could it would load the support of these schools on the whole tax paying community. There would thus arise public schools (by which an American always means tax-supported schools), giving sectarian instruction.

FACED ITS EDUCATIONAL PROBLEM. 5

But when different sects, nearly or quite balancing each other in influence, disputed the control in a new and unconventional community, where there were no roads through these novel perplexities any more than through their forests, and where they had to blaze their trails for themselves, it is clear that this sectarian instruction would in the end be so modified as to include only tenets common to all, and would tend in fact to become less doctrinal and more ethical—a teaching merely of morals and of duties to each other.

In course of time many of the churches would be dissatisfied with this and would revert to private schools at their own cost and under their own exclusive control. The burden of supporting these would be so considerable that they would object to being taxed also for the support of public schools for other people's children.

But in a country controlled by popular suffrage and among a people passionately convinced that the success of their Government depended on the widest diffusion of intelligence, it is evident that a system of free public schools supported by public taxation, when once started, could never be abandoned. It would be thought a necessary measure of self-defence in the Government to educate all the rising generation for the duties of citizenship, the poorest of them as well as the richest, and the Pagan no less than the Puritan. The public school system, free to all and supported by public taxation, would inevitably become therefore a fixed feature of public policy.

Now with the two systems in force, it would be obvious that the one where tuition was free would grow the faster ; and equally obvious that those who paid for their own and were taxed for the other would wish to limit as far as possible the scope and consequently the cost of the one they didn't use. Two rival theories as to taxing everybody for the education of the rising generation would thus develop : one, that such taxation was only necessary and justifiable far enough to fit them for the common duties of citizenship ; and the other that it was also to the public interest to fit them for anything. Heavy taxpayers would naturally lead in the first ; those who felt less the burden of taxation, or

paid no taxes, in the second. As heavy taxpayers are never in the majority, and as the readiness to vote burdens on others is apt to be more marked in those who do not bear like burdens themselves, it would be natural to expect the tendency in the long run, in a democratic government, to be found in favour of the most liberal appropriations and the widest scope for the studies.

The first class would hold that only reading, writing and arithmetic were necessary, with perhaps the history of the country and the nature of its government. To tax them for teaching other people's children more than that, Latin or algebra or chemistry, they would regard as robbery. But the second class, those depending on the free public schools rather than on the sectarian schools for the education of their children, would wish it carried as far as the children seemed capable of receiving and profiting by it. They would easily persuade themselves, too, of the sound public policy and justice of this, since they would argue that the more the child knew and the more its judgment was developed, the better and more useful member of a self-governing community it would make.

Thus could be easily foreseen a struggle between those who wished to limit the free public school system to primary education and those who wished to carry it through secondary schools to colleges and universities. The one side would hold that the free secondary and university education, besides harming the taxpayer through unequal burdens, would harm many of those encouraged to take it for the reason that it cost nothing ; since it would educate them beyond their intellect and disqualify them for what they are fit for, in the effort to qualify them for tasks they never can be made fit for—spoiling good farmers or blacksmiths to make worthless lawyers or doctors or speculators. The other side would hold that the more education one is found capable of receiving, the better fitted he will be to do whatever he finds to do—that the better education you give him, the better farmer or blacksmith he will make, if that is to be his vocation.

Finally, our philosophic student would infer that in the long run, in a country without an established church or a

FACED ITS EDUCATIONAL PROBLEM. 7

governing class, constantly tending toward universal suffrage and toward the changes wrought by enormous and highly varied immigration, the side likely to prevail would be the one making all education, from the lowest rung at the foot of the educational ladder to the very highest, open to the poorest child on the sole condition of capacity to receive it. He would further infer that of those who set their foot on this ladder many would be intensely eager to get off it again to begin making a living and eager while on it for a great variety of special studies that they thought would help them in the varied pursuits they expected to follow.

Without wearying you too much with details, it may be briefly said that something like this is the exact history of two centuries of educational evolution in the United States. It seems to be ending in a system, ranging from the alphabet to the classics, the modern languages, literature, history, civics, the higher mathematics and science, with a strong leaning to practical applications of science in all fields of art and industry, sustained absolutely at the public expense and free to all, with every grade open to the poorest and most friendless pupil in the grade below, on the single requirement that his standing there fits him for it. That is all that is necessary to-day in the greatest city of the New World to carry the child of the Ghetto or of the Levantine push-cart quarter from the primer to a fairly earned degree of Bachelor of Arts in the College of the City of New York, or to an equivalent degree, involving equal study and to a considerable extent along equally varied lines, in its Normal College for Women.

This system had grown in the early years of the present century into a total enrolment in the schools, colleges and universities of the United States, public and private, of 17,539,000 pupils, of whom 16,127,000 were in public institutions, supported by taxation. When the enrolments for certain special interests, evening schools, reform schools, Indian schools, schools for deaf, blind, feeble-minded, etc., were added, the grand total was reached of 18,187,000. Nearly one-fourth of the total population is at school in a

The open
door every-
where to
everybody.

nation of eighty millions ! (United States Commissioner of Education, Report, Dec. 1, 1904.)

Some
distinctive
features.

The system thus developed, though varying somewhat in the different States, is characterized by certain general peculiarities.

First, as to religion in the schools. Broadly speaking, religious instruction is not compulsory in any public schools and not permitted in the most. Religious exercises at the daily opening of the school were long encouraged, and are still common, but seem to be growing less frequent, especially in the great cities. The language of the New York City charter probably states, though in a somewhat involved fashion, the ground which most city schools throughout the Union and many of those in the country are fast approaching :

“No school shall be entitled to or receive any portion of the school moneys in which the religious doctrines or tenets of any particular Christian or other religious sect shall be taught, inculcated, or practised, or in which any book or books containing compositions favourable or prejudicial to the particular doctrine or tenets of any particular Christian or other religious sect shall be used, or which shall teach the doctrines or tenets of any other religious sect, or which shall refuse to permit the visits and examinations provided for in this chapter. But nothing herein contained shall authorize the board of education or the school board of any borough to exclude the Holy Scriptures, without note or comment, or any selections therefrom, from any of the schools provided for by this chapter ; but it shall not be competent for the said Board of Education to decide what version, if any, of the Holy Scriptures, without note or comment, shall be used in any of the schools ; provided that nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to violate the rights of conscience, as secured by the constitution of this state and of the United States.”

Under this, the reading of a chapter of the Bible at the opening of the school is still common.

The New York State constitution prohibits aid from public funds to denominational schools, or to schools where any denominational tenet or doctrine is taught ; and similar prohibitions are general in other States. The New York provision reads as follows :—

“Neither the State, nor any subdivision thereof, shall use its property or credit or any public money, or authorize or permit either to be used directly or indirectly, in aid or maintenance, other than for examination or inspection, of any school or institution of learning wholly or in part under the control or direction of any religious denomination, or in which any denominational tenet or doctrine is taught.”

To discuss the effects of this general policy might approach too closely to contentious domestic questions. One may be permitted, however, to say that in the prevalent American view it certainly throws a greater work upon the family and the church ; but that, where these both do their full duty, it is probable that no harm results.

As to the extent of the public school education. The doctrine is rapidly gaining ground in most of the States that it should be carried at the public expense from the primary branches straight through the secondary schools and on to the universities, for all who are found capable, able and desirous to continue such a course. In more than half the States free universities are already to be found.

As to its character. “I would found an institution,” said Ezra Cornell, “where any person can find instruction in any study.” The sentiment has been inscribed on the walls of the Capitol in his native State at Albany, and it is beginning to expand the available courses of study, not only in the colleges and universities, but largely also in the secondary schools and sometimes even in the primaries. A reaction against the excessive extension of this elective system is setting in ; and there is a good deal of complaint, especially in the primary schools, where it is often said the attention of the children is distracted to so many other things that they do not learn reading, writing and arithmetic as well as they should. But in the secondary schools and the universities there is an enormous multiplication of studies and of

separate courses of study, designed for the varying wants of the pupils, with reference to the varied vocations they expect to enter. The tendency is strongly to the practical side, and scientific and technological studies are greatly in favour.

As to the time taken for Public Education. This tendency to specialize at school with reference to what the pupil expects to do to earn a living is accompanied with another peculiarity—a haste, once almost a craze, to get out of school and get to work at one's life-business at the earliest practicable moment. Nowhere else has there been the like feverish anxiety to keep the studies of the secondary schools or of the universities within such a range that the pupil may think he has received a liberal education, but get through it in fewer years than formerly. He even tries now to complete the usual college course in three years, instead of the traditional four ; and would like the course in the professional school for a doctor or lawyer to be two years instead of three or more. In fact he often begrudges every month between the primary school and the entry on his business or profession, and fears that those taking still less time than himself for liberal studies will get ahead of him in the race of life.

As to women. In all the public schools, primary and secondary, there are apt to be as many girls as boys. In the colleges and universities the proportion may be smaller, but in those supported by public taxation both sexes are admitted on equal terms, as well as in many others. It begins to be considered, however, that co-education is chiefly commended by its economy. A State university can, of course, educate such girls as seek its classes at less cost to the taxpayers than if a separate institution had to be built up for them and a second set of professors engaged. But aside from this, it is coming to be thought in many quarters that better results may be had in separate institutions. Thus one of the richest and most independent of the new universities, that of Chicago, endowed by Mr. John D. Rockefeller, has just determined to segregate female students. Another, the Stanford University of California, is limiting the female students henceforth to one third or less of the entire number. There are, however,

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FACED ITS EDUCATIONAL PROBLEM. 11

many well-endowed and admirably-equipped colleges for women alone, sometimes independent, sometimes affiliated with a great university like Harvard or Columbia; and the number of women pursuing their education through colleges and universities is already large and rapidly increasing.

A final peculiarity of the American system may be noted;—*the extraordinary readiness of rich men to found colleges and universities*; to endow chairs in them or make to them gifts of libraries or museums, or to help on the lower schools in a multitude of ways. Two American citizens, both noted for other benefactions, have given forty millions of dollars, say eight millions of pounds, to four educational enterprises alone—Andrew Carnegie, a name honoured for good reason in Dundee, to the Carnegie Institution for Original Research and to a Fund for pensioning college professors; John D. Rockefeller to the Chicago University and to the General Education Board. Another, Leland Stanford, gave what promises, when the estate is fully settled, to amount from thirty-five to forty millions (say seven to eight million pounds) for the University founded in memory of his lost son. Ezra Cornell founded, financed, gave to and solicited for the University in Western New York which bears his name till it now has property and endowment amounting to about \$12,000,000 or more. Matthew Vassar, a brewer, founded the first college for women in America, at Poughkeepsie, New York, and gave and secured for it \$2,500,000, say half a million pounds. To call the long roll of similar benefactions would exhaust your time and patience. In ten years the gifts to universities, colleges and schools of technology in the United States amounted to a hundred and fifteen millions of dollars (£23,000,000). The tide was steadily rising, for in the last of these years, 1902, the gifts to such institutions amounted to sixteen and three quarter millions (£3,350,000).

The basis of this whole system is of course the common primary or elementary school, but here, aside from the peculiarities already mentioned, there is probably less that

Primary
Schools.

will seem novel to you than in the next department. The enrolment in the primary schools in the different States generally equals about twenty per cent. of the population, and the average daily attendance about 69 per cent. of the enrolment. The average length of the school term throughout the country is 147 days; the annual cost, roughly speaking, is about fifty million pounds. The general tendency is to make attendance compulsory between the ages of 6 and 14, and to apply the penalties for non-attendance to the parent. The home rule disposition of a democracy leaves the business management of the schools to the people of the locality, but the State alone passes on the fitness of the teacher.

In the State with whose educational system I have the greatest familiarity, that of New York, the average of daily attendance rises to 76 per cent. of the enrolment; and the compulsory education law is supplemented and made far more effective among the mixed population of our great cities by rigid laws against child labor. Whether parents wish it or not, it is thus made difficult for the children to lose their American birthright to a sound elementary education.

**The great
Secondary
School
System.**

A more distinctive feature of the American system is the Secondary School. In countries where free tuition is not carried up to the university, there is apt to be a vague, undeveloped territory between the primary schools and the universities, filled sometimes and to a certain extent by tax-supported high schools, but more frequently by private high schools. The distinguishing feature of the free common school system of the United States is the completeness with which it fills this gap between the primary schools and the colleges or universities. This began almost with the beginning of the colonies. In 1647 Massachusetts required by law the establishment of a primary school wherever there were fifty families in a settlement or township; and a grammar school which should be capable of fitting students for college wherever there were a hundred. Connecticut and Maryland required a grammar school in every county town. Other colonies in one way or another

made provision for secondary education at the public expense. But as the troubles preceding the Revolutionary War increased, these grammar schools or high schools fell into some neglect and many communities were without them. Then sprang up a system of private academies, often under sectarian control, and sometimes receiving subventions from the public treasury, though never under public control. The two long continued to occupy the field together. The differences between them have been incisively stated by the accomplished Commissioner of Education in the State of New York, Dr. Andrew S. Draper :

“The function of the academy was to prepare for college and incidentally for life ; that of the high school is to prepare for life and incidentally for college. The one was classical, with some practicalities ; the other is severely practical and generally in the best sense, with classical appurtenances. The academy was essentially an advanced school for boys ; the high school is as essentially co-educational.”

Meantime the various States were slowly feeling their way toward more harmonious and better articulated systems of education entirely under public control and at the public expense. New York was the first. Its organization of secondary schools in 1784 was intended to fit into the primary education on the one hand, and to lead, on the other, to colleges and universities. Indiana outlined such a system in 1816, Pennsylvania began State support of secondary and higher education in 1838, and many large towns in other States did the same. But the system was still disjointed and irregular.

At the close of the Civil War a new educational movement began to be increasingly felt throughout the United States. Amid all the vivid pictures left on my mind by what I saw during that gigantic convulsion, none, even of Gettysburg or Shiloh, bring back such a thrill as these of Washington in 1862 :

The new
inspiration
for the
Higher
Education.

First, a calm, sunshiny day when the great bronze Statue of Liberty was hoisted to the dome of the still unfinished Capitol and slowly settled to its place above that exquisite

structure, almost within eyesight of Confederate troops on the other side of the Potomac. Not even the Conscript Fathers, advancing the price of public land across the Tiber on which the armies besieging Rome were then encamped, was finer than that.

The others came under my eye as a young official of the House of Representatives. When the fitful flame of the Nation's life seemed flickering with every fresh bulletin from the field, Congress calmly considered and passed three Bills. One gave free a hundred and sixty acres of land to any citizen on the sole condition that he should occupy and develop it. Another reached across mountains and deserts to bind together in an indissoluble Union the East and the farthest West by the Pacific Railroad. The third and the greatest—signed, as Dr. Draper reminds us, by Abraham Lincoln with the same penful of ink with which he had just signed the second call for three hundred thousand soldiers—gave of the public lands to every State as much as was needed to found a free University for the sons and daughters of the State.

From that inspiring act came the two great impulses that have almost transformed American education in the last forty years, the vast expansion of the secondary schools and the development of the State universities. Between them, when the system is complete, they put within reach of any child of the Republic a free university education.

We are not deluded with the conceit that our secondary school system is yet the best possible means for fitting children either for college or for life. What we may say is that it is the best means yet devised and put into operation for placing within reach of the greatest number of children the opportunity to climb the educational ladder as high as they can ; and that the education thus afforded tends in the main to develop, even out of the masses of imported raw material, the kind of citizens who have thus far made the fortunes of the country.

Statistics of attendance in these schools are scarcely available in any satisfactory form before 1876. In that year there were in the public high schools of the country

only about 23,000 pupils, and in the corresponding private schools about 74,000. By 1902 the proportions were remarkably reversed. There were then in the 6,292 public high schools 551,000 pupils, and in the private schools 105,000 ; or, roughly speaking, about one in every twenty-three of the youth of the land was pursuing some form of higher education, while the door was open to as many of the others as showed themselves qualified to enter it.

The nature of the instruction varies in different localities. In a general way it may be said that the standard curriculum toward which educational authorities are striving would include either modern or ancient languages, mathematics, English and science for about one half the work of a four years' course, while the rest would be made up of studies chosen by the pupil or the parents.

Perhaps a better idea may be given by taking first the requirements of a good secondary school, and next the bewildering array of "electives" it is apt to allow. For this purpose the High School of St. Louis may be selected. All its pupils who complete its four years' course have been required to study English, algebra, plane geometry, physics, biology, history and Shakespeare, and to these they must give somewhat more than half their time. Then under the guidance of the authorities studies sufficient for the rest of the time must be made up out of a long list, including ethics, civics, economics, psychology, arithmetic, book-keeping, commercial law, higher algebra, solid geometry, trigonometry, chemistry, penmanship, phonography, drawing and history of art, Latin, German, French, Spanish and Greek.

A more conservative and, as I must think, a wiser class of schools leaves less to the choice of the pupils or parents, but allows an election between scientific and classical courses. In the first, they have Latin and either German or French with algebra, history, English, geometry, trigonometry, botany, and chemistry. In the classical course they generally carry Latin and English through the four years, Greek through three, and German and French through two, with algebra, geometry and history. Still others (as ordered by the state of Minnesota, for example)

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arrange most of the studies already named into three courses, called respectively English, Literary and Classical, and between these the pupils or their parents make choice. Where students were preparing for college, it was found in 1902 that a little over one half took a classical, a little less than one half a scientific course. A more definite idea as to the present bent of secondary school education may be given by the facts that in 1898, out of over a million students, 306,000 studied algebra, 274,000 Latin, 147,000 geometry, 113,000 physics, 78,000 German, 58,000 French, 47,000 chemistry, and only 25,000 Greek.

The general tendency was summed up in the pregnant statement by Elmer Ellsworth Brown, then Professor of Education in the University of California, now United States Commissioner of Education, that in consideration of secondary school curricula, it is now coming to be thought that "what is good preparation for life is good preparation for college. More and more the question of college entrance requirements is coming to be a question as to what is best for the schools; and a situation in which certain demands of the colleges were once the determining factor, now finds its determining factor in the demands of the public high school." To this I may add that in 1902 the pupils entering college from the tax-supported high schools stood, as to those entering from academies or private schools, in the proportion of $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 1. They comprised less than a quarter of a million boys and nearly a third of a million girls.

Naturally, then, the secondary schools are striving to make the education they give stand on its own merits and to avoid having it narrowed into a process of cramming for college examinations. Help is given to this effort by some of the colleges themselves, which do away with entrance examinations altogether, in the case of pupils from certain schools whose certificates of fitness for entry they accept. This means that it is the school that is examined, its methods, fitness, and thoroughness; and that it is the daily work of the pupil that counts, not the accidental performance on a few points on a single day of apprehension and nervous strain. The school is thus sustained in trying to give its

How

pupils a rounded mastery of their subjects and to rate their work by both its average quality and its quantity. The pupil is stimulated to learn his subject for its own sake, not to think only of what he must know to "pass" on the questions of some particular college.

Methods of instruction too are changing. There is an abandonment of mere learning by rote and of old routine ; a greater tendency to throw the student on his own resources and make him think for himself ; a vast extension of practical illustrations, and particularly of laboratory work, in physics, chemistry and the biological sciences. Textbooks often come then to be used chiefly to formulate and explain what the pupil has already found out.

The Massachusetts system still keeps the inspiration of its great educator, Horace Mann, and leads the country in carrying free secondary education into the remotest hamlets. By State law, every township is compelled to furnish high school education to every child within its limits prepared to receive it. I may be pardoned for the belief that in other respects the system of secondary schools in New York stands at the head or at least abreast of the foremost, the best in organization and inspection, with as good results as any, and on the largest scale. There are eight hundred secondary schools in that single State. Independent of their support through local taxes, they have been discriminatingly aided from the literature fund since 1790, on constant inspection of schools and examination of pupils by the State Regents, to the extent of over four and a half million dollars. In 1903 they had 95,000 students, spent in the year over seven million dollars (say one million four hundred thousand pounds) and had net property to the amount of thirty-four millions (say nearly seven million pounds). The whole country had only fourteen times as many secondary schools in its forty-six States, with only eight times as many pupils. The secondary school attendance in the whole country has doubled in thirteen years ; it has doubled in New York in nine years. Yet while attendance at the primary school is compulsory, that at the secondary schools is not—the State feeling that it

(£300). In denominational colleges the average salary falls to \$1,180; in the State institutions it rises to nearly \$1,800, and in those independent of both Church and State control to over \$1,900 (nearly £400). In these colleges and universities there were in 1902, 161,000 students. If you add the numbers in separate professional schools of law, medicine and theology, there were in all over 200,000 students pursuing university studies.

There has been an enormous expansion in the oldest and best universities within the past twenty-five years. Their teaching force has been doubled or even trebled; the standards for admission and for thoroughness of instruction have both been raised; there has been a great broadening of scope, and while the Humanities have not been displaced, there is far greater attention than formerly to modern languages, to literature, history, economics, civics, and to science pure and applied.

But after all the most notable recent evolutions in the field of higher education have been the State universities and the scientific and technological schools. Of the latter I spoke at some length in Bristol a few months ago, and will not now repeat myself. But the State university development is less known and it promises equal interest and success. State Universities.

The feeling was early and widespread, particularly at the West, that the government should support colleges and universities as well as the primary and secondary schools. As far back as in 1816 the Constitution of the new State of Indiana provided that "it shall be the duty of the General Assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in regular gradation from township schools to a State university, wherein tuition shall be gratis and equally open to all." Other States moved in the same direction, but the great impulse came in the passage of the Land Grant Act in the second year of our Civil War. It gave each State in the Union public land in proportion to its representation in Congress, to the smallest ninety thousand acres, to the largest over a million, "for the endowment and maintenance

of at least one college, whose leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts . . . in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life." Congress has since increased this princely endowment by an annual appropriation of \$25,000 in cash to each institution founded under this Act.

There are now forty of them. They have 2,700 instructors, 33,000 students, 60,000 graduates, \$22,000,000 productive funds (£4,400,000), and an aggregate annual income of \$6,000,000 (£1,200,000). In all, the ideal of a free university education for anybody qualified to enter is approximated. Fees, where any are charged, are low. Cornell takes free six hundred students from the State secondary schools on Regents' certificates of fitness. Others take all their students free. With all the effort is to complete and crown the work of the free primary and secondary school system.

Their general characteristics are less prominence for the old collegiate "Humanities," greater attention to science and particularly to applied science with reference to agriculture and the industrial arts, a greater variety and freedom of choice in elective studies, military training and the admission of women. One of them, which may be taken as a fair average type, divides its work into eleven different colleges or schools, ranging from literature and the arts to science, engineering, agriculture, music, ancient and modern languages, and library science. Then its school for post graduates gives advanced instruction in twenty-seven subjects, beginning with the languages and mathematics and extending to chemistry, civil, mechanical, electrical and sanitary engineering, agriculture, horticulture, etc., etc. In short, they undertake most of the work of the older universities and do it well, but add many things the old ones never touched, bringing the instruction more into relation with the daily life of the majority of the people. Half a dozen of them might be named which maintain practically as high standards and offer as wide a range and as sound

instruction as the best of the older universities. They draw fresh blood and their chief strength from the robust product of the common schools ; they are yearly becoming more and more the colleges of the common people, often, especially at the West, of all the people ; and their graduates are coming forward among the most prominent and most useful of the people's leaders.

I dare not trespass further upon your patience. I have tried to show you some features of the system that is growing up beyond the Atlantic to carry any capable child in all the land from primary school to university at the public expense ; aiming to give every human being within our borders his chance, and to make America more than ever the home of Opportunity—aiming, first of all, in the golden words which Abraham Lincoln signed and made alive, “to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes.” In that lies our hope to preserve and perpetuate ordered liberty under law over a united country that stretches from the tropics to the Arctic Zone, and from ocean to ocean. In that lies our hope to make our vast immigration from every clime and race capable of sharing and carrying on a complex system of government that has hitherto taxed the best resources and best qualities of the best native stock the world ever saw—your stock. In that lies our trust that they can never be long misled by any corpse-lights from the graveyard of lost hopes and abandoned ambitions, where collectivism and communism hold sway ; never maddened by the more lurid temptations that blaze the way to militant anarchism. The secondary school and the State university are our antidote to all that gospel of despair, with its low level and dreary monotony, its withdrawal of all incentive to rise and its fatal obstruction of the individual initiative which has thus far been the greatest single cause of our marvellous growth. And for every other ill, as for this, our remedy is light, and again light, and to the end more and more light. Withal we try to keep in sight as well as we can the real object of a true education, as John Ruskin stated it : “to make people not only *do* the right things but *enjoy* the right things—not merely

industrious, but to love industry—not merely learned, but to love knowledge—not merely pure, but to love purity—not merely just, but to hunger and thirst after justice.”

So we are following the direction in which you started us, the impulses and aspirations you gave us. We have held fast to your love for learning, in the new and strange conditions that surrounded us ; and I hope this feeble sketch of the chief activity and chief expenditure of your kin beyond seas, a Nation now of eighty millions of people with one fourth of them at school, may always make a pleasing picture in British eyes.

APPENDIX.

FREEDOM OF THE ANCIENT AND ROYAL BURGH OF DUNDEE CONFERRED.

From the DUNDEE COURIER, 3rd November, 1906.

The names of His Excellency the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, American Ambassador to Great Britain, and ex-Provost William Brownlee were added yesterday to the burghess roll of Dundee. In different branches of public services both burghesses have rendered services which Dundee has done well to honour.

The ceremony took place in the Albert Hall at noon in presence of a large and representative audience, by whom the youngest burghesses of Dundee were received with spontaneous warmth. On Mr. Whitelaw Reid the honour was conferred "in recognition of his great eminence as a statesman and author, in consideration of the large and important commercial intercourse between Dundee and the United States, and in testimony of the high regard entertained by the citizens of Dundee for the American people."

The scene on the platform was rendered a particularly striking one by a multiplicity of official uniforms, such as the robes of the Magistracy and the uniforms of the Lieutenancy and the naval and military services.

Lord Provost Longair occupied the chair, and, in addition to the Magistrates and members of the Town Council, there were on the platform: The Earl of Strathmore, Lord Lieutenant of Forfarshire, Sir Reginald Ogilvy, Bart., Sir G. W. Baxter, Sir Leonard Lyell, Bart., Sir James Low, ex-Lord Provost Mathewson, ex-Lord Provost M'Grady, ex-Lord Provost Hunter, ex-Lord Provost Barrie; Provost Stewart, Monifieth; Provost Gray, Broughty Ferry; Provost Carswell, Newport; Mr. Edward Cox, Mr. D. C. Thomson, the Hon. J. C. Higgins, Sheriff-Principal Ferguson, Sheriff Campbell Smith; Sheriff Lee, Forfar; Mr. Victor Fraenkl; Captain Clayhills Henderson, R.N.; Mr. G. K. Smith, Ardmere; Mr. Duncan Macdonald, Mr. D. J. M'Kinnon, &c.

The Lord Provost at the outset said they were met under the sanction of a most honourable tradition for a twofold purpose, the importance of which was to some extent expressed by that large and representative audience—to do honour to statesmanship, diplomacy, literary talent, and also to recognise eminent public service rendered in the narrower but equally honourable and useful field of municipal government. He was glad to believe that they did so with the cordial concurrence of the citizens of Dundee. They had with them Mr. Whitelaw Reid, the representative of the great American nation. Referring to the long and intimate trade connection subsisting between Dundee and the United States of America—a connection which they could not but believe had been mutually advantageous and highly satisfactory—he said that in a comparatively brief period in the life of nations the United States had more than doubled its population, and they were glad to find that their trade interests with it had continued and increased in a similar ratio.

It was true that Dundee had most formidable competition from Calcutta and other great producing centres. Nevertheless Dundee still formed a connecting link with the busy New York markets and their great Indian Empire, where Dundee's supplies of raw material were found. They in Dundee had also paid the very highest tribute to the stability and soundness of United States credit by investing several millions sterling in real estate on the far side of the Atlantic, and as a result of the splendid enterprise and untold resources of the United States their commercial faith had generally been rewarded by the receipt of excellent dividends. But close as was the connection between America and Dundee as the centre of a great textile industry, there were other and stronger bonds of union. They could not forget that the United States had proved a kind foster-mother to many sons and daughters of Dundee and Forfarshire who had sought and won fortune under the Stars and Stripes, and it was a great satisfaction to know that what had been our country's loss had undoubtedly been America's gain.

But these, the narrow and parochial considerations, must give place to the higher conception of the relation in which they stood to their guest, who in his person and in virtue of his exalted office stood as the representative of that branch of the Anglo-Saxon race with whom they were proud to claim kinship. He came as the herald of international goodwill towards themselves, and in his competent hands reposed the priceless treasure of amity, mutual respect, and trust which, they thanked Heaven, existed between the two great peoples. It was their earnest wish and hearts' desire that the cords which bound the great English-speaking peoples together would be so lengthened and strengthened that they should never be broken, and in that desirable consummation the peace and progress of the world would be largely secured.

The Town Clerk then read the burgess ticket conferring the freedom of the city on Mr. Whitelaw Reid, as follows:—

At Dundee the Sixth day of September in the Year of Our Lord
One thousand nine hundred and six.

Which day the Lord Provost, Magistrates, and Councillors of the City and Royal Burgh of Dundee, being met and convened in Council, and having the Locked Book of Burgesses of the said City and Royal Burgh open before them, did, and hereby do, confer the Freedom of the said City and Royal Burgh of Dundee of the First Class, with all and sundry liberties, privileges, and immunities thereto belonging, upon His Excellency The Honourable Whitelaw Reid, LL.D., Ambassador of the United States of America to His Majesty the King, in recognition of his great eminence as a Statesman and Author, in consideration of the large and important commercial intercourse between Dundee and the United States, and in testimony of the high esteem entertained by the citizens of Dundee for the American people, but that always conform to and in terms of the Act of Parliament thereanent.

What is above written is the Record of the Creation and Admission of the said His Excellency The Honourable Whitelaw Reid, LL.D., Ambassador of the United States of America to His Majesty the King, as a Burgess of the said City and Royal Burgh of Dundee, as specified in the Council Minute Book of this date, and this folio is signed by the Lord Provost, being the Chairman of the Meeting of Council at which the Creation and Admission was made, and also by the Town Clerk in name and by authority thereof.

(Signed) WILLIAM LONGAIR, Lord Provost.

„ WM. H. BLYTH MARTIN, Town Clerk.

Mr. Whitelaw Reid had a most cordial reception on rising to accept the freedom. Passing at once from the too generous and too partial expressions concerning himself, his Excellency said the secret of that occasion was to be found in the statement of the important commercial intercourse between Dundee and the United States, and in the kindly expression of cordial goodwill by the citizens of Dundee towards the American people. (Applause.) He was glad that that had been enhanced by the generous and very just tribute which the Lord Provost paid to the illustrious President of the United States. (Applause.) That good feeling towards his people and the Government he had the honour to represent was cordially reciprocated. (Applause.) They had very much the habit in America of liking the Scots, and it was a habit which dated far back in America's history. Of all the elements of their composite nationality, there was no one, perhaps, that had been more honoured, more trusted—and with better reason—than the great Scottish and Scotch-Irish elements, which had played so important a part in its history. (Applause.) They had a great disposition to show their Scottish sympathies. (Applause.) They had their Burns celebrations in America, as well as they had them in Dundee—(applause)—and their St. Andrew's celebrations. They recited Scottish poems to the audiences; they sang Scottish songs; and they listened to the wonderful speeches about the glories of Scotland and of her later triumphs since the Union, when she conquered England. (Laughter and applause.) Americans, indeed, often carried their admiration for things Scottish to such an extreme that they even enjoyed the bagpipes—(laughter) and they pretended to enjoy haggis—but only once a year! (Renewed laughter.)

There was something more than sentiment in all that. Most sentiment if it was to be enduring or valuable must have a substantial and material basis, and he thought their burgess ticket wisely pointed out at the beginning that material basis the Lord Provost spoke of, the importance of the commercial intercourse between Dundee and the United States. He might have gone farther and stated that of the whole export of Dundee the United States took more than half. He was glad they thought that was a customer worth looking after! (Laughter.) But there was more than that to tell. Not long ago the President of the New York Chamber of Commerce had furnished him recent statistics of trade. They showed that of the trade of New York, nearly one-third was with Great Britain and the British Empire; of the trade of the United States more than one-third, more nearly one-half. There were then several hundred millions of very solid reasons—equally solid, whether they reckoned them in sovereigns or in eagles—solid reasons why they should consider it their duty by all honourable means in their power to maintain, preserve and perpetuate the present perfectly cordial relations between the two great countries. To what nobler task could Christian men set themselves, to what higher task could statesmen of either country set themselves, than to guard these relations, and make them enduring so long as grass grew and water ran? (Applause.) Well, that was his business there—first, to guard, as it was the duty of every man in public service to guard, the interests of his own country, and next to see to it that they avoided any possible clashing with the country to which he had the honour to be accredited. (Applause.) His Excellency then referred to many of the names in the Lockit Book. There were many names in it which interested him greatly. The first name which caught his eye was that of a great orator, whom he made bold to call his friend, because he was the friend of his country in its hour of

